The JOURNAL of GEOGRAPHY

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In This Issue

Jamaica: An Island in Transition . . . . . *Luella N. Dambaugh*

A Miniature Rock Garden: A First Grade Geography Project . . . . . *Ethel Pace*

Secondary School Geography and the Needs of Our Times . . . . . *Paul F. Griffin*

Travel Geography Courses for a New Field . . . . . *Valene L. Smith*

Beginnings in Geographic Education . . . . . *Lorrin G. Kennamer, Jr.*

Notes on the Geopolitics of Singapore . . . . . *Joseph S. Roucek*

Douglas C. Ridgley, 1868-1952 . . . . . *Guy H. Burnham*

National Council at Work . *Ina C. Robertson*

Geographical Publications . . . . . .

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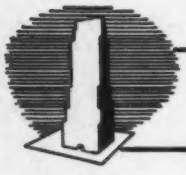

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The JOURNAL *of* GEOGRAPHY

CONTENTS FOR FEBRUARY, 1953

Jamaica: An Island in Transition. By Luella N. Dambaugh 45

Dr. Dambaugh is an associate professor of geography, University of Miami. She has published articles in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY, *The Geographical Review* and *Comments on Argentina Trade* and has carried out extensive field work in Middle America. This article is based in part upon her field research. A recent article by Dr. Dambaugh in the JOURNAL is "Puerto Rico's Ambition" in the March, 1951 issue.

A Miniature Rock Garden: A First Grade Geography Project. By Ethel Pace 57

Miss Pace has taught in the primary grades for many years and during recent years has devoted herself to the first grade level.

Secondary School Geography and the Needs of Our Times. Paul F. Griffin 60

Dr. Griffin is an assistant professor, Stanford University. He was an instructor of geography at Teachers College, Columbia University from 1950-1952. A recent article by Dr. Griffin in the JOURNAL entitled "Richard Elwood Dodge: Pioneer in Education Geography" appeared in the September, 1952, issue.

Travel Geography Courses for a New Field. By Valene L. Smith .. 68

Miss Smith has been teaching at the Los Angeles City College for the last four years. She has traveled widely—thruout the United States and into Alaska and Mexico. She has visited every country in Europe except Finland and has visited the entire Middle East and Egypt. All of this travel has been done by automobile and provides background for the courses she teaches on travel geography.

Beginnings in Geographic Education. Lorrin G. Kennamer, Jr. 72

Mr. Kennamer taught two years in a high school at Oak Ridge, Tennessee and then took his Master's Degree at the University of Tennessee. In June, 1952 he received his Doctor's Degree from the George Peabody College for Teachers and joined the staff of the department of geography and geology, East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas, last September.

Notes on the Geopolitics of Singapore. By Joseph S. Roucek 78

Dr. Roucek is chairman of political science and sociology, University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut. He is a frequent contributor to the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY and other magazines. The October, 1952 issue of the JOURNAL contained an article by him entitled "Some Geographic Factors in the Strategy of the Kuriles."

Douglas C. Ridgley, 1868-1952 82

National Council at Work. By Ina C. Robertson 83

Geographical Publications 84

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VOLUME LII FEBRUARY, 1953 NUMBER 2

JAMAICA: AN ISLAND IN TRANSITION

LUELLA N. DAMBAUGH
University of Miami

Jamaicans brush aside their notorious past with a hearty laugh, but are quite sanguine about the future. The island has experienced thruout its history a number of violent upheavals, both natural and economic, that have left the peoples no better off than before, if anything, a little worse. Poverty, disease, malnutrition, undernutrition, unemployment, underemployment are very much with them today. Also there are devastated and eroded hillslopes, impoverished soils, and above all, many landless peasants. While notorious buccaneers once claimed the limelight, notable bauxite interests hold the clue to her future.

FREEHOLD SYSTEM OF LAND TENURE EVOLVES

The abolition of slavery in 1834 created a large group of newly freed peasantry to settle on the land, and there was plenty of land to be had in the hills. East Indian Coolies could only partially replace the slave workers, and so a marked labor shortage existed on the sugar estates. Furthermore, sugar prices began a downward spiral with the establishment of free trade in the West Indies, and competition was acute with the newer sugar producing areas in the French West Indies and other parts of the world. Because the agents of the absentee landlords wanted immediate profits, they permitted the estates to deteriorate. Some were completely abandoned or sold, and the cultivation of other crops began. Bananas and coffee became the small farmer's choice. Subsistence farming grew faster in Jamaica in the latter half of the nineteenth century than in other islands.

The Jamaican peasant is a transplanted person, and certain of his mores and patterns of life go back to the past, and to Africa. One of these is the method he uses in getting his food supply. In Africa, each family had a plot of ground from which it procured

its own food. Charred blotches on the Jamaican hillsides, where trees and underbrush have been burned, are the result of a typical African procedure in order to prepare the fields for planting—the belief being that potash released from the burned vegetation destroys noxious insects. Yams, cocos, sweet potatoes, cassava, a few stalks of corn and bananas are planted among the ashes each year until the soil becomes so infertile that the farmer is compelled to move along and repeat the burning.

Estate owners soon realized this characteristic of the negro slaves and gave them land, no matter how poor it was, on which to raise their staples. Some became self-supporting and managed to save a little money from the sale of fruits and vegetables. The fortunate few were able to use these savings to purchase land with the advent of emancipation. There was a rush to acquire farms in the hills, for the estate owners placed high rents on the huts and plots on their estates.

Under the Governorship of Sir Henry Blake, a system of settling the small freeholder on the land and training him in agricultural methods was initiated. The Jamaican Agricultural Society was created to aid the small farmer, and to present his problems to the Government. It has functioned in that capacity to this day. Not less than five or more than 50 acres could be purchased by one person. In 1859 there were some 50,000 freeholdings, and by 1896 the number rose to 92,979. The production of field crops and bananas attained a place of importance and tended to place a veneer of stability on the economy even tho the income was small.

PRESENT STATUS OF LAND TENURE

The number of small farms has been on the increase in Jamaica. In 1930 50 per cent of the owners were on farms ranging from one-half to five acres, and by 1938 the proportion had risen to 84 per cent. A good deal of the land was still held in large blocks. Since 1938, a large scheme of agricultural land settlement began. The Government has been buying privately-owned properties and subdividing them for sale to peasant farmers on easy terms. The farmer is encouraged to practice mixed farming, care for livestock, use proper soil techniques and participate in cooperative marketing. By March 21, 1949, the Government had acquired 134 properties. It made 20,037 allotments (varying from three to 50 acres) to 19,500 families. The total acreage allotted was 114,351 to a

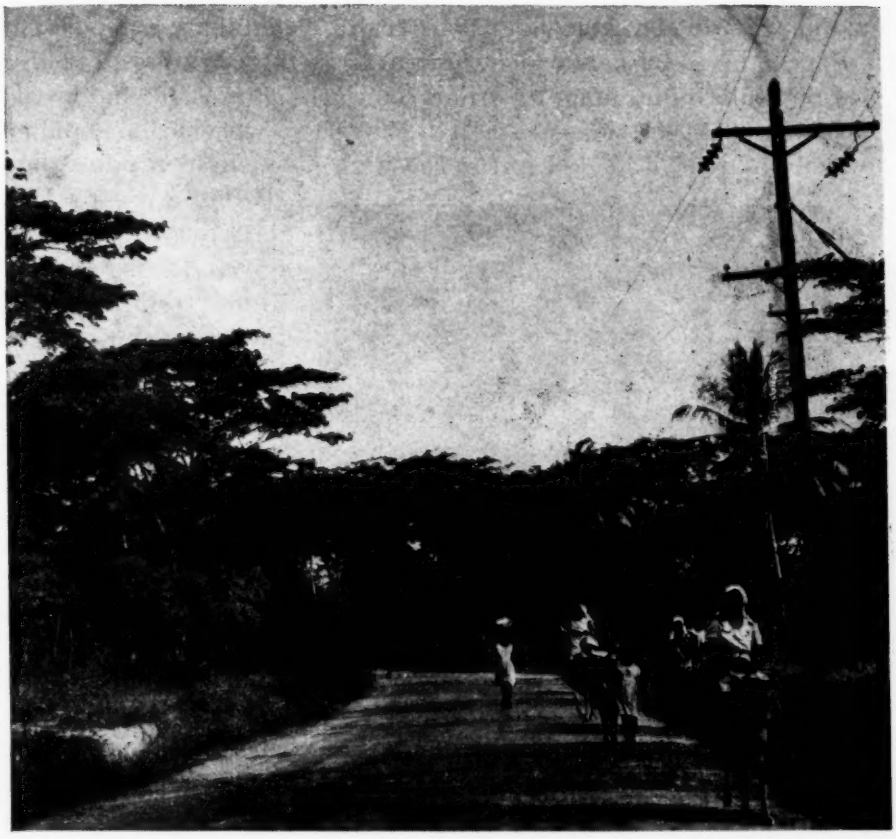

FIG. 1. Women going to market. (Courtesy Pan American World Airways System.)

population of 103,175. As of a year ago the Government had a backlog of requests for parcels of land.

While other systems of land tenure are under experimentation, namely the leasehold and the cooperative farm, it is the freeholder who is experiencing the heyday. Largely because of tradition the Jamaican wants to know that he owns a piece of land and can pass it on to his children.

The small holding, giving the Jamaican landscape a patchwork appearance, is a very common sight all over the island today. The freeholder and squatter alike live a simple life. His home may be small and made of wattle, clay or thatch palm. If he is a bit more prosperous the house may be built of clap boards and have a porch. The surplus that is produced is taken to market and sold. It is

customary for the women to load fruits, vegetables, or even cut flowers in large baskets which they carry on their heads and trudge downhill all night long in order to reach market by daybreak. Baskets tied on the sides of small donkeys, two-wheeled carts pulled by oxen or trucks loaded to the hilt with people and produce jam the highways on Fridays or before holidays. It is an all-night trek to reach the Kingston market by dawn (Figs. 1 to 4).

FIG. 2. Woman going to market on back of a donkey. (Courtesy Pan American World Airways System.)

CONTRASTS IN FARM CONDITIONS

The sugar interests benefit from their location on the levelest and most fertile lands, while the freeholders are coping with the submarginal lands and are at the bottom of the agricultural ladder (Figs. 5 and 6). The farm of the latter may constitute an uneconomic unit, may be unsuited to the size of the family, or may show no correlation whatsoever between farm boundaries and the contour and relief of the land, but the owner is trying to make a go of it. The grass-root economy is there if one takes the time to look for it.

There comes to mind the small seven-acre farm at Coleville near Christiana. It is on a hillslope with at least a 30 per cent slope. The farmer, with the aid of his wife, made terraces on which were planted yams, bananas, citrus, vegetables and grass. He also built

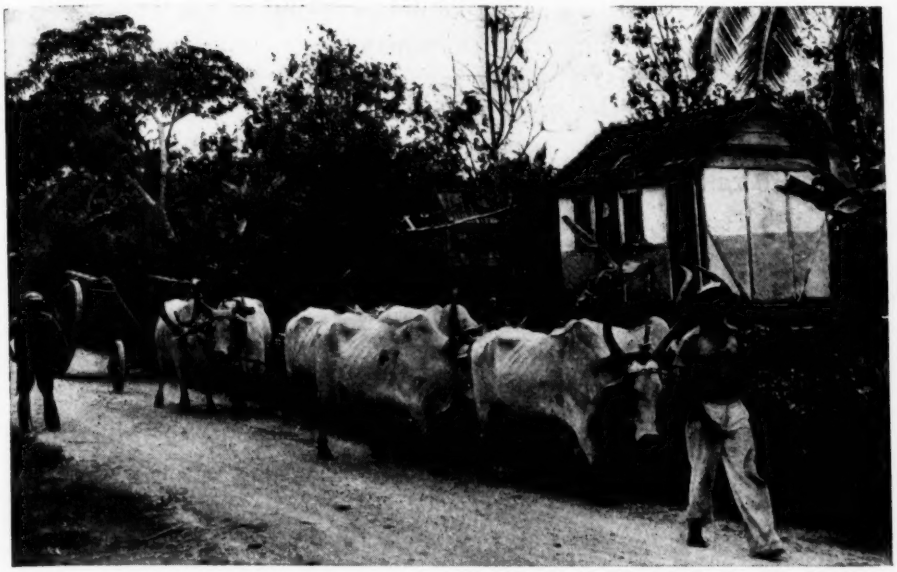

FIG. 3. A typical rural scene. (Courtesy Pan American World Airways System.)

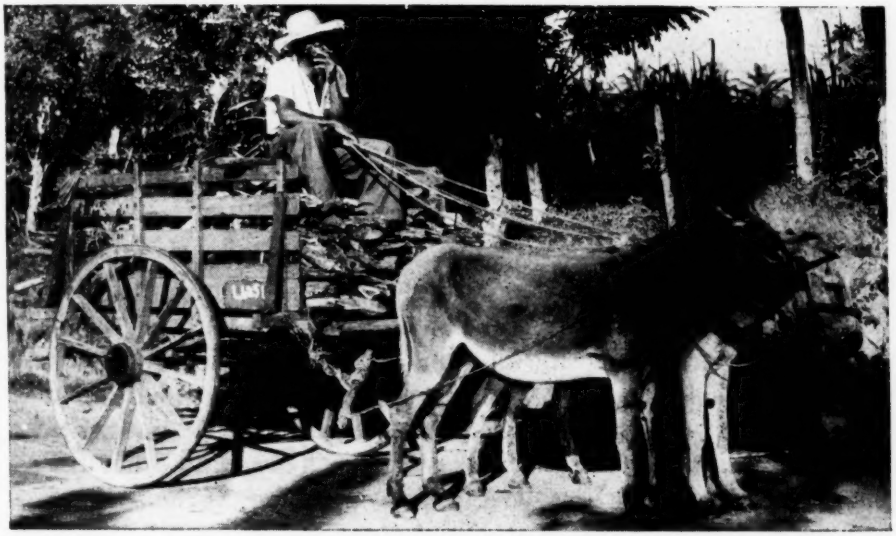

FIG. 4. A more prosperous peasant owns a team of donkeys. (Courtesy Pan American World Airways System.)

a small enclosure in which he kept five dairy cattle. He owned a truck that brought him supplementary cash income. The Helwig Estate near Christiana is the largest mixed farm in the island. All aspects of scientific land management were practiced on this farm. It was completely terraced. The farmer works a three-year rotation: grass, corn and peas, Irish potatoes. He has dairy cattle

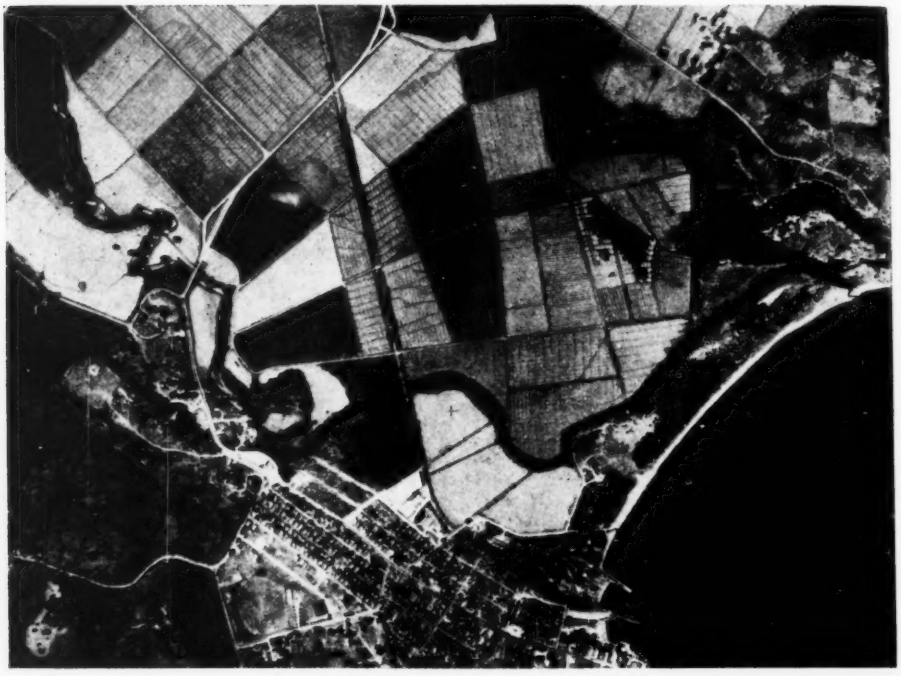

FIG. 5. An air view of Montego Bay showing how sugarcane, in different stages of growth, has utilized all the fertile, alluvial soils in the broad valley. The harbor is an open roadstead. (Courtesy Surveys Department, Kingston, Jamaica.)

also. The 40-acre farm of a retired schoolmaster near Savanna la Mar, located in the leeward and drier part of the island, was also an example of good conservation techniques. He totalled several thousand dollars from the sale of tomatoes because he used a grass mulch on the soil to reduce evaporation. He was experimenting with mangoes, with an understory of field crops, planted horizontally as a windbreak to the dry easterly Trades. These and other farms like them, along with the work going on in the Agricultural Experimental Stations and Vocational Schools, represent action on the land.

On many slopes are terraces of stone or of grass, with the level land planted to citrus and other crops. Improved nursery stock is supplied the farmer. He is also encouraged to plant grass and start a dairy herd. It it interesting to note that the Nestlé Milk Condensery at Bog Walk has gone from an 8-hour day to a 24-hour day, seven days a week, as a result of the increase in milk production on the part of the small farmer.

FIG. 6. The farm of a freeholder in the John Crow Mountains. (Courtesy Pan American World Airways System.)

Since the leaf spot and Panama diseases ruined the banana plantings in the late thirties, the Jamaicans have experimentally produced the Lacatan banana (which is said to be resistant to the Panama disease) to replace the Gros Michael. It is still necessary to spray bananas with the Bordeaux mixture and lime to control the leaf spot disease. The hurricanes of 1944 and 1951 have taken

heavy tolls of the new banana plantings and coconut plantations. That of August 1951 caused about 90 per cent destruction to Jamaica's banana crop which was moving toward its postwar peak. There were eight parishes in which the destruction was 100 per cent. The coconut crop was about 50 per cent destroyed.

Droughts are a frequent menace, especially in the southern and southwestern parts of the island. The development of grasslands and the work of pen keeping (livestock breeding and feeding) have helped greatly to fill the gap left by the declining banana and coconut industries during the last two decades. The introduction of the Zebu cattle strain has been of particular significance. Pen keeping is on the increase in all parts of the island.

CURRENT PROBLEMS FACING THE FARMER

The Annual Report of the Department of Agriculture, Jamaica, For the Year Ended 31st March, 1948 (HMS Office, 1950), summarized the current problems of the agriculturalist:

> "Many would consider 1947-48 a worse drought year than 1946-47; certainly the water shortage was more acute as many springs, ponds and tanks . . . failed in the second year of short rainfall. . . . Coupled with low fertility, drought, high prices and much restricted production, predial larceny assumed alarming proportions in all parts of the island; immature crops, even yam heads recently planted, were stolen from the fields; dairy cattle were slaughtered and small stock carried away in considerable numbers by such thieves. Farm wages spiraled upward with the increasing cost of living and a decreasing productivity from the land. . . ."

As a result of these conditions and erosion, production of foodstuffs was on the decline and Jamaica failed to produce her needed staples. Corn, rice, ground provisions (sweet potatoes), Irish potatoes, pulses, plantains were all in short supply and prices were high. The most important food staples imported were flour, rice, corn and cornmeal (from United States) and fish of all kinds (from Newfoundland). Sugar seemed to be the only crop that has gained momentum, and the tonnage has risen in part because the crop is relatively immune from the above evils.

The interval between 1938 and 1949 reveals a shift in the major commodities entering foreign trade. By value, bananas dropped from 59.2 per cent of the total trade in 1938 to 19.2 per cent in 1949. Sugar rose from 17.4 per cent to 39.7 per cent, and rum augmented from 5 to 10.9 per cent between those same years. In 1949 sugar, rum and bananas comprised 70 per cent of all commodity exports, while the broader category—food, drink and tobacco—

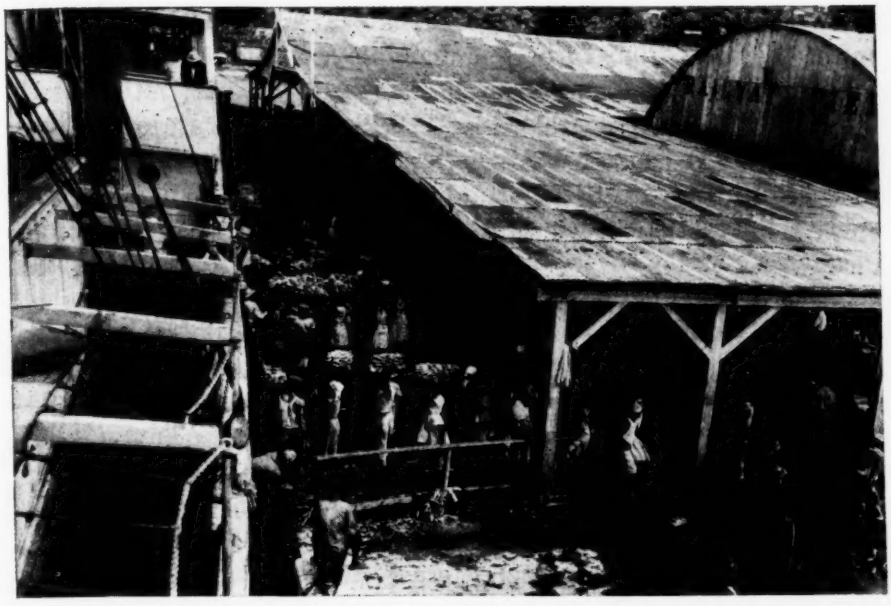

FIG. 7. Women and men loading a banana ship at Port Antonio, one of the deep harbors in Jamaica. (Courtesy Pan American World Airways System.)

amounted to 96.2 per cent. Pimento, cigars, cocoa, coffee, ginger and citrus pulp were exported in smaller quantities. United Kingdom and Canada took almost nine-tenths of the total exports. United States ran a poor third.

The leading commodity imports held some surprises as well. Flour (wheaten) was the major import from 1938 to 1949, and cotton piece goods held second place. The commodity group—food, drink and tobacco—amounted to 27.1 per cent of the total imports in 1938 and 25.0 per cent in 1949. Among the remaining imports were such commodities as car and truck parts, fish, paper, oil, motor spirit, lumber, cement and agricultural machinery. The United Kingdom and Canada supplied 58 per cent of the total commodity imports; the United States sent 16.5 per cent, but held second place as the country of origin.

From all angles the Jamaican economy is tied up with the land resource, whether used or abused. Forty-four per cent of all gainfully occupied workers were in agriculture in 1943, this despite the fact that three-quarters of the area comprises rugged plateaus and mountains, with poor or nonexistent roads, with torrential streams in a wet and dry climate and on which Terra Roxa is the

most common soil type. In the Census year of 1943 almost 26 per cent of the total labor force was unemployed. The total population of the island was estimated in 1949 to be 1,388,917. With a birth rate of 31.93 and a death rate of 12.19 it had a rate of natural increase (19.74) which was twice that for the world, yet lower than in Puerto Rico, Costa Rica, Trinidad and Barbados. Women helped to swell the ranks of the unemployed, for they constitute a significant proportion of the workers on the farms, roads and docks (Fig. 7).

The Government has tried to secure long term contracts for the sale of the Colony's exports. It has also been pushing the tourist industry which is a major dollar earner. It even senses the advantages to be derived from migratory farm workers or any suitable labor in the United States and Canada. To increase exports, especially those going to dollar areas, would result in lasting benefits to the labor market, and help correct the adverse balance of trade which has been especially acute since September 1949 when the pound sterling was devaluated to $2.80 U. S. and $3 Canada. Most of all it wants to see secondary industries grow in number and size.

INDUSTRIALIZATION AS A WAY OUT

Striking similarities may be found between Puerto Rico and Jamaica with respect to geological structure, relief, terrain, soils, climate, economic plant growth and even demographic characteristics. Their hopes and desires for change and enlargement in the socioeconomic structure fall into a common pattern. The single greatest exception to these generalizations lies in the degree of evolution that has been attained, for Puerto Rico is well in the lead, and Jamaica is trailing, as are all the other Caribbean countries.

Puerto Rico has formulated a functional pattern for the development of secondary industries. Within a single decade more than 100 new factories have been put into operation. Word has gotten around and Jamaica has lent an interested ear. She has now set about to evolve a plan of her own for the development of secondary industries as a way out of her dilemma—an expanding population in an area with limited known natural resources. The Jamaican program is twofold: it offers advantageous terms at which sites in the Government Industrial Estate may be had, and it provides for substantial concessions to industrialists who wish to establish new industries in the island.

An area of 630 acres of Government owned land in Kingston has been zoned as an Industrial Estate, of which about half has been set aside as building sites for industrial and commercial uses. Railroad, road and harbor facilities, together with water supplies, power, labor and a large market are all in close association to the new industrial area.

The Pioneer Industries (Encouragement) Law of February 20, 1949, provided special incentives for the establishment of new industries in Jamaica by offering some relief from tonnage tax, customs duty and income tax. Anyone who wanted to establish a plant to manufacture a "pioneer product" (one not then carried on in Jamaica on a substantial scale) on or before December 31, 1952, "may become a 'pioneer manufacturer.' Any person declared by the Government to be a pioneer manufacturer may, during a period of five years thereafter, import free of customs duty and tonnage tax all building materials, tools, machinery, conveyor belts or other materials necessary for and used in construction, alteration and extension of the factory, or for equipping the same." The pioneer manufacturer may, in addition, "set off a sum equal to one-fifth of the permitted capital expenditure against income arising from the manufacture or sale by him of the pioneer product in each of any five years during a period of eight years beginning on the production day."

The new Customs Tariff which went into operation in October, 1951, included a number of reductions in the rates of duty payable on raw and semimanufactured materials as an aid to the industrial program of the island. Iron, steel, nonferrous metals, crude rubber, leather, oils and fats and industrial machinery necessary in secondary industries are included in the tariff provisions.

New Industries and Industrial Resources

New industrial developments include the plant of the Caribbean Cement Co., Ltd. on the south shore east of Kingston. It went into operation at the beginning of 1952. Another first for the island is the Ariguanabo Mill which will be able to turn out 14,000,000 yards of bleached and dyed calico a year when it reaches full production. This mill is very modern, it has glass-finished walls that shed the dust coming from the cotton. These two plants will be able to supply the island's needs. The Citrus Condensery at Bog Walk produces orange concentrate, orange oil and citrus pulp. It is in close

proximity to large citrus estates, railroad facilities and pure, silt-free, reliable water—the latter factor having determined the specific site of the plant in the same area as the Nestlé Milk Condensery. The Ministry of Food purchases the output of the citrus plant.

The Jamaicans are in earnest over the industrial potential of their island. Early in 1950 they sent an industrial mission to the United States to tour all leading industrial areas; they made an industrial survey of the island (unpublished to date); and they invited an economic advisor from the Office of International Trade, United States Department of Commerce in October, 1951, to look over the island's potential for development and make recommendations on what ought to be done to realize it. This gentleman indicated that since Jamaica is strategically situated between two big American continents and in the Caribbean, it should specialize on the types of industries that would utilize local raw materials. Wood, leather, fibers, fruits, gypsum, saw dust, bagasse, molasses, filter cake, cacao, salt, citrus pulp, bauxite and many others are available. Pioneer industries using these raw materials are now turning out gypsum plaster and boards, veneer boxes, cocoa, laundry blue, tool handles, salt and manufactures, carbon dioxide gas, to mention a few. A plant to produce anhydrous alcohol will be situated in the Kingston Industrial Estate. Anhydrous alcohol, mixed with petrol, can be used as a motor spirit.

BAUXITE DEVELOPMENT

The Jamaicans expect the bauxite development to be the largest single industrial enterprise in terms of a significant contribution to the national revenue thru royalties, income tax and direct expenditures. Three companies—Reynolds Jamaica Mines, Ltd., Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation and Jamaica Bauxite, Ltd.—have concessions covering 60,000 acres, which contain a probable reserve of 130,000,000 tons of bauxite. The deposits are low in impurities, occur at or near the surface and are close to tidewater. Work has begun on the mining installations which include a deep water pier at Ocho Ríos, another pier plus access roads at Little Pedro and a plant for processing alumina in Manchester parish. By mid-1952 production was expected to begin. On the lands not usable for mining bauxite the companies are engaging in pen keeping, production of food staples and reforestation.

Many Jamaicans feel that an Industrial Development Company, patterned after the one in Puerto Rico, is a must for the successful culmination of their industrialization program. Certainly an overall planning organization is needed to direct research, carry out surveys of the human and natural resources, formulate plans for action on the land (in agriculture and pastoral activities and in manufacturing and handicraft industries) and to integrate the various aspects of the island's economy. Jamaicans are hopeful for a better future economically and socially. If the spirit and enthusiasm that is manifest in their agricultural improvements carries over into the new developments in manufacturing and mining, there is little doubt they will achieve their end.

A MINIATURE ROCK GARDEN: A FIRST GRADE GEOGRAPHY PROJECT

ETHEL PACE
Parkview Central School, Bedford, Indiana

My first graders and I enjoyed transforming a dilapidated old sand table into an interesting and attractive rock garden—complete with a fish pool.

MAKING THE POOL

We made the pool first. The sand was pushed to one end of the table. A layer of small rocks was placed on the bottom of the table, covering the area we wished to use for the pool (a space approximately 20 inches by 9 inches). A piece of pipe (a part of a gas line) was inserted in a hole which had been bored in the table. It was placed so that the top of it was one half or three quarters of an inch above the rocks so that when the sand and cement were put in, the opening would be a little lower than pool level. The lower end of the pipe extended about three inches below the table. A rubber stopper such as is found in iodine bottles was used to close the drain. A wall of rocks, about six inches high, was made around the rock floor. On the rocks was placed wet sand. This was the form for our cement. The cement was made with one part Portland cement and two parts sand and mixed thoroly, using enough water to make

it the consistency of plaster. This was put on the sand form about one inch thick. The side walls were slanted in toward the bottom and the bottom sloped slightly toward the drain so all the water would flow out of the pool when it was cleaned. While the cement was wet, we placed around the top of the wall of the pool round stones that the children had brought. This not only gave the pool a finished look but protected the cement and served as a retaining wall for the soil we would use later. We permitted the cement to stand untouched for three or four days so it would become thoroly dry. Then we gave it a coat of shellac. This made the surface of the pool more smooth and protected the fish from being "burned by the lime." We put the fish in the pool for a few days before we continued our work. Had there been any leaks, repairs would have had to be made before the garden was planted.

Collecting Soil and Plants

No repairs were needed so we went "soil hunting" across the street. On one side of a building formerly used as a school we found some very rich soil. With toy shovels the boys dug the soil, the girls put it in sand buckets and because soil is heavy the boys carried it across the street. With toy rakes and hoes all the lumps were broken and smoothed.

Since all plants do not require the same kind of soil, we had quite a discussion as to the best soils for the various plants. The children asked at home about it and with the information we decided that the cacti and plants of that type generally grow in sandy soil. So in the spots where cacti were to be put we used two shovels of sand and one shovel of the rich soil until we had the soil deep enough. For the ivy, philodendron and plants of that kind we used the rich soil except for a layer of small rocks and sand on the bottom of the table needed to facilitate the drainage. Each child who brought a plant placed it into the soil. If he brought more than one plant, he shared with someone who had none. The hole was dug deep enough and wide enough so the roots of the plant would not be crowded. Water was put around the roots before they were covered, and the soil was packed around the base of the plant. We learned that the cactus type plants required less water than the others. Since our room was quite hot and dry we watered those needing less water twice a week and watered the others every day. The children, who took turns watering the plants, used a small

sprinkling can. They used a little hoe and rake to keep the soil loosened.

All went well for awhile, but during one very cold week end many of our plants froze. We waited until all danger of freezing was past before we replaced them. Some were replaced by wild flowers and wood ferns both of which required the rich soil.

BUILDING A CABIN AND PATH

It was suggested by one of the children that we pretend that our fish pool was a river filled with fish. It was decided that the fisherman would need a little cabin just like the one they had seen in the supply room. It would have to be placed on a hill so the river would not flood it if heavy rains came. To build a hill the soil would have to be much higher on one side of the table. We used large flat stones, such as those found in creek beds to hold the soil for the hill on the table. About this time we made a trip to the stone quarry, and it was suggested that we put a big cliff or ledge of rock on one side of our hill. On weekend trips the children found moss to put on parts of the table. Colored rocks were used to mark a path from the cabin to the "fishing hole." The path had to curve around the hill so it would not be too steep to walk up and down, and because if it were steep and straight up, there would be big gullies in it after a big rain. Many interesting rocks were brought in during the time we had this little garden.

CONCLUSION

We used our rock garden for two years and the pool was still in good condition when I left it to move into a new building. Six year old children are interested in elements of the physical environment such as soil, rocks, plants, etc. For additional suggestions, you will find it profitable to refer to: 1. Thomas Frank Barton. "Teaching Soil in the Lower Grades," JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY, 1946, Vol. 45, p. 309, 2. "Concept Chart . . . Geography Foundation Series," and *Through the Day* (Grade 1), Bobbs-Merrill Publishing Company, Indianapolis, Indiana.

SECONDARY SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY AND THE NEEDS OF OUR TIMES

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For the tense days ahead of us, geography teachers are confronted with the necessity of designing courses that will match the changing demands of the times. The inquiring geography teacher now recognizes to a much greater extent than he formerly did, that the systematic presentation of so-called "geographical facts" has not and can never be adequate to fulfill the teaching needs of his profession. An increasing number of teachers in this profession are recognizing the crucial factor in all aspects of geography: the human element. Any realistic program must be geared to this element, either immediately or ultimately. First, it will be seen by current definition of geography, what the basic direction must be in a teaching program.

GEOGRAPHY DEFINED

White and Renner have stressed that geography is "the study of human society in relation to the earth background."[1] This "human" theme is now universally recognized in other definitions. For example, "Geography is the science which studies the reciprocal relationships between mankind and its earth environment."[2] Or, "Geography is a body of organized facts related to definite places and concerned with the adjustments between population groups and the areas where they live. . . ."[3] Or, "Geography is the study of the earth and its relationship to man and his activities."[4] This subject has also been defined thus:

> . . . the science which describes and maps the phenomena of the earth's surface for the purpose of discovering how the distribution of one set of phenomena is related to that of others. This great science of geography obviously consists of two main parts, physiography, dealing with the distribution of physical features, and ontography, dealing with the distribution of living beings and their characteristics.[5]

[1] C. Langdon White and George T. Renner, *Human Geography* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1948), v.

[2] George T. Renner, et al., *World Economic Geography* (New York: Crowell, 1951), 4. (cf., C. C. Huntington and F. A. Carlson, *The Geographic Basis of Society* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1934), 6.)

[3] D. H. Davis, *The Earth and Man, A Human Geography* (New York: Macmillan, 1944), 12.

[4] O. W. Freeman and H. F. Raup, *Essentials of Geography* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1949), 1.

[5] E. Huntington and F. E. Williams, *Business Geography* (New York: Wiley, 1926), 1.

Without extending further the definition of geography, it can readily be seen that any realistic teaching program must point up sharply and vividly the role of man upon the earth scene. Historically, to what extent have we been doing this?

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY

Viewpoints conflict as to the true function of geography. Some contend that it is a physical science, or a social science, or a study of distribution and mapping, or human ecology or morphology of landscape. Since earliest times, geography has evolved more or less in accordance with the needs of the period—not infrequently lagging behind these needs—a lag which every conscientious geographer aspires to avoid in our present times. In early times, cosmography was central to the study; the early Greeks were philosophical and speculative and later became mathematically and cartographically oriented. The Romans described lands *and* peoples. Then came the age of exploration and description which continues to influence the direction of geography teaching.

The colonial schools of New England stressed the mathematical and locational aspects of the subject, constituting a kind of "sailors' geography." Religion, too, colored geography for a time, until the "wonder books" drew widespread attention. Geology came to the fore in the nineteenth century, when urban growth and industrialization gave rise to commercial geography. Out of this trend, humanized and socialized geography logically emerged. This brings us to the present stress upon the human element, now that most of the basic, preceding knowledge is established and fairly widely diffused. Each of the preceding stages are justifiable and sound; out of them has grown human ecology, the vital climax to the historical evolution of geography.

In the light of this development, geography teaching is delimited to an interpretative study of the relationship of human life to the natural environment; it is a study of relationships rather than of facts. Therefore, "geographic factors" really mean "environmental factors"; "geographic environment" actually signifies "natural environment." The question of meanings here probes beyond the superficial semantic aspect. The term "geographic" may be used to modify such concepts as "adjustments," "situations," "concepts" or "economy." But fundamental to each is *man's contact with nature.*

This contact influences the human life of a locality in at least

four ways: who will occupy the given region; which mode of life and cultural pattern may prevail; which occupations will be foremost and what the population density will be.

Geography in Secondary Schools

The success of our teaching programs today is contingent upon the capacity of administrators and geographical educators to cast the subject into its proper perspective. The "signs of our times" show that there are still many outmoded emphases in current programs. Because of delayed recognition of these "signs," geography teachers in too many schools have imperiled their own positions. Instead of portraying, say, Holland as a nation of windmills, wooden shoes, dikes, canals and pretty tulips, how can the facts be correlated to spell out a more vital picture for school students? The physical features must be clearly understood: that Holland is flat, wet, has an Oregon-like climate, needs drainage for which cheap power (windmills) is necessary, has much good pasture-land, hence produces excellent dairy cattle and products therefrom and that root crops are favored (turnips, potatoes, sugar beets, cabbages and bulb-flowers). The demographic element must be clearly understood: that the population has been congested for the amount of available farmlands. Consequently, the farms are small and utilitarian to the extreme.[6] The people have been unable to develop a large manufacturing industry due to the lack of forests, coal, iron and waterpower. Understanding the physical and demographic descriptions of Holland, students would be in a position to comprehend the need for emigration—to the "New Netherlands" (New York), West Indian Islands, South Africa, India and Ceylon. Understanding these problems, students, by means of self-identification, would be in a position to see how Holland has developed its human resources to an almost incredible degree. It would be easy to understand the Dutch stereotype—a neat, thrifty, intelligent, self-restrained individual. It would be simple to understand how the existence of the nation depends upon her neutrality; it would be easier to understand the crucial role Holland's geographical position has played in World War II, or how vital she would be in any

[6] For instance, in average crops per acre as compared with the United States, Holland produced in one year 253 bushels of potatoes per acre (United States: 102), 36 bushels of wheat per acre (United States: 16.7), and 50 bushels of barley per acre (United States: 25).

unfortunate future wars. This kind of cosmic geography teaching embraces more than just windmills, dikes, pretty flower-bulbs and cheese. It is teaching geography in a more meaningful framework for the student. An analogy for teaching geography simply from the descriptive point of view would be to teach medicine entirely in terms of symptoms. The student of medicine needs to know what things in the blood-stream cause healthy skin coloring or pimples. Likewise, it is well to start from the life-stream of a nation in order to understand its exterior qualities.

SOME COMMON WEAKNESSES IN SECONDARY SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY

In the first place, geography is not even taught in many high schools in the United States. And where it is taught, a fragmental approach frequently is used; it is not related to the student's environment or to his other subjects. Geography is neither begun nor ended in the same grades with any uniformity from school to school. In different curriculums it is present for varying lengths of time. Likewise, there is no standard grade placement; economic geography may be taught in the ninth grade in one school, in the eleventh in another or omitted entirely in another school. Nor is there continuity from grade to grade in the subject. With such chaos as this, is it any wonder that some question the value of certain geography programs in the high schools?

In the senior high school, when students are emerging from the so-called naive period of life, they are interested in pragmatic knowledge, in the discovery of their "selves," in discovering the basic values underlying current events. Very few functional aspects of democracy, from a geographic point of view, are taught. These aspects should include 1. city planning, 2. conservation, 3. development of national resources, 4. geographic interpretations of current affairs and 5. geopolitical phases of the national defense and foreign policy.

Another weakness is apparent in the qualifications of teachers who conduct courses in geography. They are but products of their own training programs— a system which tends to operate in a vicious circle. Inadequate geography programs of the present tend to cultivate inadequate teachers for the future. For instance, to teach economic geography, i.e. the world making a living, the teacher must instruct in four integrated aspects of the broader subject: 1. the region, 2. the industry, 3. a commodity and 4. a pattern of land

utilization via field study. There are lamentably few teachers qualified to treat these aspects in a clear, coherent and comprehensive manner which is geared to the students' level of thinking.

Another weakness is the traditional approach in teaching economic geography. Ordinarily, this approach is the "commerce and industry" treatment. The subject is structured upon a tedious listing of commodities, industries and products. The material is purely informational: facts, figures and statistics. There has been a trend toward improving this presentation by relating the informational offering to natural factors, such as climate, soils, etc. Still, the sequence holds the seeds of monotony. How can our teaching procedures be improved?

Some Avenues for Improvement

An excellent point of departure is provided by Renner's "five geographic concepts."[7] These are: ecological relationships, the regional concept, the conservation concept, that of landscape morphology and the space concept.

Under the first of these, the geographer will seek every means to point up the interdependence of man upon environment, how even his highest art forms and expressions are related immediately or ultimately to natural factors. A case in point is the worship of the sun in many agricultural nations, such as Peru. A thoro analysis of such human manifestations on the spiritual level will reveal a dynamic relationship with physical features of the land.

Secondly, as man is dynamically related to the land, so are regions within a given domain interdependent. As Renner has indicated:

> The United States is actually a mosaic of several unlike regions (as indeed is the world itself on a much more extensive scale). Within the entire realm of social science, therefore, there are few valid generalizations which can be made for the United States as a whole; a statement made regarding one region has almost no validity when applied to other regions. In view of this, regionalism and the regional concept afford the only significant method of social analysis.[8]

The third concept, that of conservation, is crucial to any realistic approach for geography teachers. It has been sorely neglected in

[7] George T. Renner, "Geographic Concepts In Secondary School Education," *School and Society*, XLVII (1938), 6-11.

[8] *Ibid.* Also, for further regional discussion, see the significant article by Robert S. Platt, "Items in the Regional Geography of Panamá With Some Comments on . . . Contemporary Geographic Method," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, XXVIII (1938), 13-36. A valuable bibliography on the subject is included.

spite of the fact that major issues involved are clearly perceived by even the poorly-prepared geography teacher. Yet little is done to promote an awareness of the problem in the students' minds. The previously cited case of Holland beautifully indexes this point. Teachers need not search beyond the United States' borders to find many fitting examples of extravagance in national resources and how dominant, recurring wastes may be avoided.

The fourth concept, that of landscape morphology, is another geographical aspect which has received inadequate emphasis in secondary schools. To state it simply, students are not taught to "see the forest" because of the proverbial "trees." The shallow perspective commonly developed in our geography courses needs considerable and widespread deepening before these courses can be regarded as fruitful studies in the high schools. Morphology is a kind of recapitulation of man's efforts to make the earth a more livable place than it was when he first found it. Morphology arrays the details of the landscape into a fascinating, memorable, coherent story—providing the teacher is capable of making it so for the student. Morphology teaches one to perceive the magnificence or the futility of man's accomplishments upon the face of the earth. Man's greatness and success, or his smallness and failure, are measured by his advances upon the natural environment. Morphology aids the student to apprise man's progress, to appreciate more fully the nature of mass fulfillment or tribulation. Morphology, if nothing more, would teach flippant observers to think twice before they say, "Southern Negros are indolent" or "Mexicans are inherently lazy." To educate students along such enlightened lines of thinking would be but one richly rewarding facet of awakening the morphological awareness in geography trainees.

The fifth concept is that of space, so aptly keynoted by the trite phrase "our shrinking world." The teacher must strive to pinpoint this concept with striking examples geared to the high school students' level of comprehension. As history yields a dimension thru time, so does geography yield a dimension thru space. While the former dimension is relatively constant, the space dimension has changed with incredible rapidity in the past century—which in the long view of history is but a second or a minute on the clock. The use of beasts of burden, the wheel, the steam-engine, the automobile, the airplane driven by propellor and jet propulsion, all have intensified the vitality of the space concept. Tangential to these modes of transport is the fabulous progress of communications

during the last half century. A newspaper is closed in Argentina one day; the world knows of it the next, if not before. Twins are born to an important personage in Rome, or peace talks fizzle in Korea; the next hour the world knows of it.[9]

The broad strategy for secondary high school geography should be structured along lines similar to these five basic concepts. Specific content of the course must be determined by the tensions and demands of the times. Such contents should be designed to enlarge national and world consciousness, and should lay the foundation for an enlightened citizenship in the democratic world, one of the weaknesses cited earlier. The teaching process must be systematic, not hastened, for, as Walt Whitman profoundly wrote, "Nature neither hastens nor delays." The relationship of geography to other high school subjects must be developed, since knowledge for its own sake is a sterile and futile concept. Granted that the contents and strategic design of geography courses lie in the above direction, the question arises as to which phases of geography should be stressed, and at what level?

OUTLINE FOR A PROPOSED CURRICULUM

In order that high school students derive a maximum from their contact with geography studies, the following chronology is suggested as a logical sequence:

Ninth grade. The elements of human geography can be treated at this level, including basic physical elements; ecological principles should be stressed, extending to the world community in three dimensions: the past, present and future.

Tenth grade. Here it is well to emphasize the principle of economic geography. This emphasis would include the wants and needs of man, his giant industries and technological developments, phases of land, water and air commerce and environmental factors involved. The nation's economy and its dependence upon the rest of the world should be illuminated at the same time.

Eleventh grade. Decomracy and elementary geopolitics make for a logical sequence. This grade may be structured as follows: 1. historical and political development of the nation; 2. internal geographic problems; 3. European countries and how contemporary

[9] For interesting documentation to the space concept, in the light of aviation advancement, see George T. Renner, *Human Geography in the Air Age* (New York: Macmillan, 1943).

events there affect the United States; 4. Latin American countries and how contemporary events there affect the United States; 5. Asiatic countries and how contemporary events in the orient affect the United States; and 6. an over-all treatment of global, political and social relationships between the United States and the key areas named above.

Twelfth grade. The next step in the suggested chronology is to treat geography from the applied point of view (conservation, city and regional planning). To be considered in this grade are such specifics as the geography of the human community, the waste, use and conservation of natural resources.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of geography is to discover what adjustments man has made to his environment with its infinite varieties of resources and conditions across the face of the earth. The course of this study must be shaped by the nature of man's current problems, without ignoring, of course, the perspective of his past. But the potential values of geographic studies have not been widely developed. Many teachers have only begun to scratch the surface of its far-reaching possibilities.

A broad design has been presented for the consideration of teachers who would strive to bring these potential values to light and make them a reality in our secondary schools. Somewhere along the lines of the design our teachers one day will help their students to 1. think geographically, relating human affairs to their environments; 2. understand "social landscapes," 3. tolerate differences in ideas and cultural patterns that exist among different regions of the globe; 4. believe firmly that there are common interests among all peoples in all regions, however remote they may be and 5. help solve such crucial problems as conservation, city planning, political sectionalism, international problems or "racial tensions."

There can be no higher motivation than that of reducing international tensions and fostering international understanding. This is the outstanding cry of our times. The role of geography in secondary schools, as it has been briefly outlined here, is very vital to the promotion of this and the other ideals just indicated.

TRAVEL GEOGRAPHY COURSES FOR A NEW FIELD

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Travel is fun—or at least some 72,000,000 Americans thought so last year, when they decided to spend their vacation in vagabonding around the country. It is estimated that the travellers planned and completed 25,000,000 trips, excluding week-end drives, during the year 1951, and that undoubtedly the travel for the current year will be still greater. In addition, another million Americans or so went "abroad," to absorb some of the heritage of the Old World, and to return with new impressions of familiar and famous places.

After the trip is over, what lasting values linger in the thoughts of the traveller? Does he have a deeper awareness and understanding of the physical, economic or social forces which are at work changing and re-creating the region that he visited? Or was he content merely to rush thru the region to be able to return to his friends and brag that "he was there"? Did he for example, stand at the edge of Grand Canyon, and feel awed by the magnitude of the chasm—aware of the passage of time represented in its many strata? Or was he one of those who annually drive the ninety miles from Williams, Arizona to the Park, only to stop, fling open the door, rush to the canyon rim and having cried out, "Golly, what a gully," to race on to another spot and repeat the crime?

TRAVEL GEOGRAPHY COURSES

Travel can be both enlightening and fun, and it is our belief that the more one knows about an area, the more pleasure he can derive from visiting there. About a year ago, members of the geography department at Los Angeles City College recognized the new and surging mobility of the American people and translated it into a new field of service for the professional geographer. Heretofore, our college classes in the geography of the United States, of Europe, etc. had been specialized, dependent upon the student's training in lower division physical and human geography. Intensive courses are unquestionably essential for those majoring in geography, teacher-training, and desirable for all undergraduate students. But such courses are hardly likely to attract the interest of the adult worker who plans to spend three weeks driving "out West" or "back East" to visit family or friends.

As an experiment two Travel Geography courses were initiated

last spring, one pertaining to travel in the United States and the other to Europe. Conducted as two-hour classes, meeting once a week for ten weeks, and providing one unit of college credit, the classes were overwhelmingly successful. We are continuing them as part of the regular curriculum this fall and plan to expand our offerings in the spring to include South America, while sections on Canada and Alaska, southern California, the Middle East, etc. loom as potential alternates for the program. Following the initial success of these courses, the word spread and currently four students are learning how to travel more effectively while seated on their own camp chairs, provided when the class overflowed the available seating space.

In order to provide maximum service to interested students, the classes are scheduled as part of the extended day (or evening) program, and to date, enrollment has been drawn principally from teachers in the public schools, their families and a few white-collar workers. The Los Angeles City School system, which has a preparation-type salary schedule encouraging teacher in-service training for salary increase, gives us a splendid opportunity, and we feel that our offerings are being fully utilized since it is teachers who have both the opportunity of greater leisure to travel, and who upon return can apply their experiences more directly to their occupation. Ultimately, however, we hope to expand the courses into industry, perhaps giving the courses in the plants themselves following the trend of education provided in the aircraft industries here.

GENERAL CONTENT OF COURSES

The content of the course is designed to train tourists to be travellers; or, in short, to teach the fundamentals of successful travel. A preliminary meeting analyzes the modes of travel—auto, train, bus, boat and air—and their respective merits. Planning one's trip according to the climate is also desirable, so that wherever possible one avoids areas such as Florida in the autumn hurricane season (while benefiting from the "off-season" tourist rates earlier in the summer); or the North wood country in the early summer, because of the mosquitoes; similarly one might enjoy the mid-summer months in the Rocky Mt. states when the wild flowers are in full bloom, and there is less likelihood of heavy storms; and San Francisco is warmer and less foggy in September than most other months, while the warmest ocean bathing in southern California is also in September rather than July.

Budgeting one's travel time will also provide maximum enjoyment. Westerners, accustomed to driving long desert stretches at high speed, have to adjust their itinerary and travel time to the heavier traffic and often more circuitous highways along the eastern seaboard and New England area. Five hundred miles can be covered easily in one day's drive in some areas, without undue scenic sacrifice, but would be impossible in many mountain areas.

Other meetings stress a knowledge of historical geography which is also interesting and rewarding for travel. Some pass roads such as the Cumberland Gap, and the Wilderness Road are familiar from American History textbooks, but the course of the Santa Fe trail which can be traced in the Midwest, and the significance of passes such as Raton, Donner, Walker to name only a few of the many in the Western states, are not so well known. Travel in the Midwest is more meaningful if one recognizes the influence of the United States land-office survey system, controlling the size and arrangement of dispersed farmsteads and the road pattern which commonly follows the section lines. The concentration of certain ethnic groups in specific areas of the United States can be explained geographically by comparing them to the region from which the immigrants or their forefathers came. The prevalence of the Swiss in Wisconsin's "Driftless Area," the Swedes in Minnesota, the Basques living in the foothills of the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains and the Greek sponge fishers in Tarpon Springs, Florida, are but a few examples.

Cities, also, are more interesting when the visit to them consists of more than just a battle thru a maze of unfamiliar streets, seeking out famous shrines or monuments. A knowledge of the geographical site and position of a city helps to explain its origin, growth and present function. Chicago, with its present web-like pattern of transportation, began as a portage point; St. Louis grew at the confluence of two major rivers; the famed "Fall Line" cities like Richmond, and Winston-Salem occupied early sites at the head of navigation and a source of power on the Appalachian piedmont. Each region of the United States has its cities, and many more examples similar to the ones mentioned can be developed, along with a list of "what to do and see" within each one. Particularly, one should recommend visits to basic industries and processing plants: The open-pit copper mine at Bingham, Utah; an ore-crushing plant at Hibbing, Minnesota; the copper smelter at Anaconda, Montana; a cigarette factory at Durham; the chocolate plant at Hershey,

Pennsylvania; a flour mill in Minneapolis; a horse ranch in the Blue Grass of Kentucky, etc. Such visits linger long in one's memory and provide fundamental knowledge of local economy.

Preceding paragraphs list only a few ideas concerning the content for a course in United States Travel. Our present outline suggests two or three preliminary meetings on the fundamentals of travel, followed by a regional survey of the United States.

STUDY AIDS

To facilitate teaching a course in Travel Geography, there are many study aids available. The major oil companies have been generous in supplying the present classes with free highway maps, and part of the homework of the course has consisted of practice in map reading (even to learning to refold them—sometimes no small feat!). A map exercise, asking questions about scale, legend, mileage distances, etc. has proved to be a suitable quiz. Quantities of free travel literature are available from state and local agencies, as well as from the Auto Clubs, and leading petroleum companies. A mimeographed sheet listing the major sources is available for each student, together with a list of recommended travel books to stimulate his interest and provide readable background information. Lobeck's Physiographic Diagram of the United States with "Text" is helpful, and because of its compactness is recommended for reference while on the trip itself. Numerous travel guides are also published, listing the best places to stay, famous restaurants and noted resorts. Students should be encouraged to try regional food specialties, and to probe for the geographical or historical bases for them. A new England Clam Bake is unique, and so are southern "hush puppies," while the varieties of seafoods available from the various coastal waters reflect local conditions.

Many excellent visual aids are available for teaching such a course including motion pictures from individual state development agencies, from automobile manufacturers, the Greyhound Bus Lines, and others.

SUMMARY

Travel Courses are a relatively new idea, and are currently being offered in several major universities and colleges in the United States. The trend is admirable and should be developed as fully as possible, in view of the nation's increasing interest in travel. In so doing, however, educators must carefully evaluate the

objectives of such a curriculum. A partial survey of the courses now offered, indicates that they are primarily "culture" courses, sponsored by art departments or allied fields. Such training is unquestionably enriching but fails to give the student the broader and keener insight into the basic relationships between man and his environment, which only geography can do. The door is open . . . let the geographer take charge . . . while the travel business booms.

BEGINNINGS IN GEOGRAPHIC EDUCATION

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Suggestions for improving the teaching of geography have appeared in professional writings since the earliest days of modern geography and modern education. In fact, during the same period that these two fields were developing, an area of knowledge was evolving that came to be known as geographic education. The beginnings of geographic education can be seen in the writings of early educational reformers such as Johann Comenius, Jean Rousseau, Johann Pestalozzi and early geographers such as Karl Ritter and Arnold Guyot. The influence of these early leaders was later extended to the United States thru the work of many Americans who studied abroad during the nineteenth century. It is interesting to examine a few of these early suggestions for geography teaching and to observe their movement to this country.

EUROPEAN BEGINNINGS

Within the work of Johann Comenius (1592-1670) are found many suggestions for geography teachers. He was one of the first to advocate a change to a more rational method of study than the question and answer method and to advocate the selection of more valuable material for study.[1] Comenius suggested that the child should get very early a good knowledge of natural things. In the fourth and following years of life the child should be taken into the fields and along the rivers to observe the plants, animals and land. The cradle, according to Comenius, should be the beginning point

[1] W. S. Monroe, *Comenius and the Beginnings of Educational Reform* (New York: C. Scribner's Sons, 1900), 115-116.

of instruction in geography. At once the child should be taught direction, location and distance of various parts of the house. In addition to the use of outdoor observation in the teaching of geography, he would use pictures to furnish reality to the learning situation.[2] The book by Comenius entitled *Orbus Pictus* indicates his method of using pictures in teaching. Thus, by suggesting outdoor observations in the local environment, supplemented with aids such as pictures, Comenius was advocating a procedure in geography teaching that later became well-known as "home geography."

John Locke (1632-1704) also wrote concerning the teaching of geography. He believed that the student should study first the earth as a whole and then study analytically its various parts. This suggestion was the opposite of beginning in the home area and expanding the child's horizon as had been advocated by Comenius. A later procedure in geography teaching known as the deductive method incorporated this suggestion of Locke. In regarding geography as the science of observation, Locke meant for the students to observe globes and maps rather than the actual environment. This logically follows since he thought the student should first study the world as a whole.

Jean Rousseau (1712-1778), who lived during a period of revolt against formalism, demanded naturalness in education. He believed, therefore, that the geography of his time was practically worthless since it consisted only of the formal study of globes and maps which represented inadequately the understandings needed by his *Emile*. Rousseau insisted that Emile should begin the study of geography by getting a correct knowledge of his immediate neighborhood. If maps were to be used they should be drawn by the child. The mere names of places and facts were of no value, but objects should be studied first-hand as a matter of experience.[3] Emile would obtain his geography instruction in the following manner:

> His first two starting points in geography will be the city where he lives and the county-seat of his father. After these will come the intermediate places, then the neighboring rivers, and lastly the observation of the sun and the manner of finding

[2] The use of the word "picture" prior to the discovery of photography by J. M. Niepce in 1827 must exclude the idea of photographs and include the ideas of woodcuts, etchings and engravings.

[3] Translated by W. H. Payne, *Rousseau's Emile* (New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1896), 136-139.

one's way. This is the point of reunion. Let him make for himself a map of all this. This map will be very simple, and composed, at first, of only two objects; but to these he will gradually add the others as he ascertains or estimates their distance and position.[4]

Johann Basedow (1723-1790) was the first to start an experimental school using the ideas of Comenius and Rousseau.[5] His geography instruction contained many activities used today. He began the geography instruction in the immediate area and used field trips, models, products, illustrations, museums, journey accounts, imaginary journeys and current events.

The combination of geography and nature study was suggested by Johann Pestalozzi (1746-1827) who was guided in his teaching of geography to some degree by the ideas of Rousseau. His principle, that all knowledge is based on observation, led him to emphasize the study of the local environment.[6] The student was to reproduce his knowledge of the home area by drawing maps. Efforts to carry out his ideas in geography teaching were made in his school at Yverdon, Switzerland. The major objective was to attain a thoro knowledge of the neighborhood by student excursions in the field. Other suggestions by Pestalozzi such as adapting the instruction to the child and the use of the synthetic order of study aided instruction in geography.

It was as an inspirer that Pestalozzi made one of his greatest contributions to geographic education. Of special interest to geographers is the fact that Pestalozzi exerted direct influence on the work of Karl Ritter.[7] Ritter is considered by many as the cofather of modern geography. As a boy he had been the first pupil of the school of Salzmann at Schnepfenthal, Germany. This school had begun during the period of enthusiasm created by Rousseau's *Emile*. Ritter was there eleven years as a pupil and one year as an assistant teacher. In 1807, while traveling as a tutor in Switzerland, he spent a week with Pestalozzi at Yverdon. Pestalozzi's ideas fitted well with the training Ritter had received under Salzmann. In 1809 Ritter again visited with Pestalozzi and at later times referred to the influence of Pestalozzi on him. He even said he learned how

[4] *Ibid.*, 200.

[5] J. S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947), 211.

[6] David Gibbs, "The Pedagogy of Geography," *Pedagogical Seminary*, XIV (1907), 51.

[7] *Ibid.*

to teach geography from Pestalozzi altho Pestalozzi knew no geography. Ritter's work that resulted in the volumes of *Erdkunde* began as the result of a promise made to Pestalozzi.[8]

Ritter published two works on instruction in geography and he encouraged map-drawing, constant use of maps and the use of a school garden.[9] Concerning home geography he stated:

> Personal investigation must be made by every student in order to understand the results of the investigations of others. Wherever our home is, there lie all the materials which we need for the study of the entire globe. Humboldt hints at this when he says in his "Kosmos" "Every little nook and shaded corner is but a reflection of the whole nature." . . . The very first step in a knowledge of geography is to know thoroughly the district where we live.[10]

From 1819 to 1859 Ritter lectured at the University of Berlin as professor of geography. A large share of the leading geographers of the latter nineteenth century were either students in Ritter's classes or students of his writing. Among these were the Frenchman, Elisee Reclus (1830-1905), H. Kiepert (1818-1899), under whom F. W. Parker studied in Berlin, and the Swiss-American geographer, Arnold Guyot.

American Beginnings

There is evidence that these early suggestions for geography teaching were becoming known in the United States during the first half of the nineteenth century. This evidence is revealed in the work of W. C. Woodbridge (1794-1845) and Horace Mann (1796-1859).

Woodbridge had studied abroad under Pestalozzi, Ritter and Alexander Von Humboldt. He had also been a teacher at Fellenberg's experimental school at Hofwyl.[11] On returning to this country he wrote in 1833 the text, *System of Modern Geography.*

During 1843 Mann was in Europe studying the school systems there. He brought to this country the following description of geography teaching:

> The practice seemed to be uniform, however, of beginning with objects perfectly familiar to the child,—the schoolhouse with the grounds around it, the home with its yards or gardens, and the street leading from the one to the other. First of all, the

[8] S. C. Parker, *The History of Modern Elementary Education* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1912), 345.

[9] J. R. Potter, "History of Methods in Geography," *Pedagogical Seminary,* I, December, 1891), 419.

[10] Parker, *Op. cit.,* 346, a direct quote from Karl Ritter, *Comparative Geography,* xxv.

[11] C. A. Phillips, *The Development of Methods in Teaching Modern Elementary Geography.* Ph.M. Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1910, Part II.

children were initiated into the ideas of space, without which we can know no more geography than we can history without the ideas of time. Mr. Karl Ritter, of Berlin—probably the greatest geographer now living—expressed a decided opinion to me that this was the true mode of beginning.[12]

A more widespread audience was gained for the Pestalozzian method in Ritter's geography after the arrival of Arnold Guyot in this country. Guyot was Ritter's greatest disciple and he carried his teaching directly to this country.[13] He had come from his native Switzerland in 1848, influenced by Ritter, imbued with Pestalozzian ideas and with the personal friendship of Humboldt.[14] In working with Mary Howe Smith on several geographies which used journey geography, Guoyt reflected the ideas of Pestalozzi. Concerning the teaching of geography Guyot believed:

The starting point in geographical education should be nature and not books; teachers should take their pupils to the hills and show them valleys and streams and mountains.[15]

The influence of Guyot was delayed until the work of Colonel F. W. Parker, a follower of Guyot, began to receive wide attention. From about 1860 to 1900 probably no American educator was more influential than Colonel Parker in the movement to reorganize and improve the schools of this country. After studying in Germany from 1872 to 1875 he became Superintendent of Schools at Quincy, Massachusetts. However, it was while Parker headed the Cook County Normal at Chicago that the work of Guyot was furthered. Parker's book, *How to Teach Geography,* published in 1889, contained an exposition of Ritter-Guyot principles. Many prominent teachers of geography were trained at Cook County Normal under Colonel Parker, who used the textbooks of Ritter and Guyot. Not the least of those trained under Parker was Alexis Frye, who in 1895 wrote the first American grade-school text to respond to the new influence in school geography.[16]

Another inheritance from abroad in geographic education stemmed from the work of Johann Herbart (1776-1841). Between

[12] Horace Mann, "Seventh Annual Report," *Common School Journal,* VI (April, 1855), 135-136.

[13] R. E. Dickinson and O. J. R. Howarth, *The Making of Geography* (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1933), 154.

[14] C B. Moore and L. A. Wilcox, *The Teaching of Geography* (New York: American Book Company, 1932), 42.

[15] *Ibid.,* 42, as quoted from *Biographical Memoirs,* II, National Academy of Sciences, 335.

[16] C. R. Dryer, "A Century of Geographic Education in the United States," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers,* XIV (September, 1924), 125.

1886 and 1890 a small group of young American schoolmen, including Frank and Charles McMurry, Charles DeGarmo and others, studied with William Rein at Jena. These men returned to strategic positions in American normal schools to initiate the Herbartian movement. Their influence resulted in the formation of the National Herbart Society, later named the National Society for the Study of Education. The yearbooks of this society contain many articles on geographic education. Of special note is their publication in 1902 by W. M. Davis and H. M. Wilson, *The Progress of Geography in the Schools,* and their publication in 1933 entitled *The Teaching of Geography.*

In addition to their stress on home geography, the American Herbartians advocated the use of the type study, the use of large topics and the five formal steps of the Herbartian method. To a great degree, the unit teaching we have today had its basis in this movement. Charles McMurry applied Herbartian ideas to school geography thru writings such as *Special Method in Geography* in 1903 and *Type Studies from the Geography of the United States* in 1929.

CONCLUSION

The field of geographic education, toward which the work of the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY and the National Council of Geography Teachers is pointed, has a rich background of ideas on which to draw. From writings of sixteenth century Europe to writings in twentieth century America, suggestions in geographic education can be observed in a connecting line thru the work of such men as Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Ritter, Herbart, Guyot, Parker, McMurry and others. An historical perspective in geographic education seems essential to anyone desiring a full understanding of geography teaching today.

NOTES ON THE GEOPOLITICS OF SINGAPORE

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK
University of Bridgeport

The dramatic downfall of Singapore during World War II was one of the most tragic events in the history of the British Empire. For, up to that date, until the coming of aviation, Great Britain could conduct its policy thruout the world with the tolerable certainty that its sea power in the Far East could be sustained by the existence of a powerful Far Eastern squadron with its base at Singapore. Up to that time, the political domination of Great Britain in the Pacific had been built by sea-power. "The command of the seas provided Great Britain with a mobile weapon wherewith she could bring pressure upon China by operating against the coast towns and on the Yangtze. Furthermore, it strengthened Great Britain as against her Western competitors, since she was able to dispose of a very much greater naval squadron in the Pacific than any other Western Power."[1]

SHORT HISTORICAL SKETCH

History has always demonstrated the importance of Singapore. This Malay city (named in Malay from Sanskrit *Singhapura,* "Lion City") was already important in the 13th century, but it was destroyed by the Javanese in 1365 and remained a ruin until it was refounded by Sir Thomas Raffles in 1819. It became a property of the East India Company in 1824, and eventually the capital of the Straits Settlement Colony in 1836. Often called the "Crossroads of the Far East," it became a great port and trade center. Because it was a British naval base, it was seized by the Japanese on February 15, 1942, and renamed Shonan. After its liberation it was incorporated in 1946 in the British Crown Colony of Singapore.[2]

NAVAL BASE AND HARBOR

The rise of Singapore as a naval base before World War II was in part the result of the Japanese aggression in China and Man-

[1] Study Group of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, *Political and Strategic Interests of the United Kingdom* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1940), 214.

[2] For additional details, see: Rupert Emerson, *Malaysia* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937); L. A. Mills, *British Rule in Eastern Asia* (Minneapolis: University of Minneapolis Press, 1942); E. H. G. Dobby, "Singapore: Town and Country," *Geographical Review,* XXX (1940), 84-109.

churia. That Japan had intentions to expand southward influenced the fear of Australia, New Zealand and India towards the question of cooperation for defense in the Pacific. Singapore was chosen as the site of a centrally located, strongly fortified base. Three-quarters of Britain's Empire land territory lay around it, inhabited by three-quarters of the Empire's population. Australia as well as New Zealand, British Malaya and India, had to depend for their defenses on a fleet operating from Singapore.

Singapore's natural advantages as a concentration point did not exhaust the strategic possibilities of the base. Like Suez and the Panama Canal Zone, it dominates one of the key passages of the world's waterways. Singapore Strait, a channel only nine miles wide between Singapore and the Dutch island of Riou, constitutes the one easy passage between the Pacific and the Indian Oceans. It is a gateway which no major ocean-going ship or battlefleet can avoid on its short route east or west. It is also the geographic trade center for Malaya and the western islands of the East Indies.

The island has an excellent natural harbor. With the exception of its tin smelter, the city has no important industry, but has grown rich on the transit trade. Small local steamers distribute the goods of Europe, America and the Far East brought here by large ocean-going vessels to Malaya, Sumatra, Western Borneo, and as far as Burma, Siam and French Indo-China. On the return, these ships pick up rubber, tin, oil, pepper, palm and coconut oil and salt fish. At all times, eastbound ships have to call at Singapore on their way to China, the East Indies and Japan; westbound ships halt there on their way to India, Africa and Europe. Moreover, a 2,000-mile circle drawn around Singapore takes in the heavily populated colonial possessions of Holland, France, Portugal and Great Britain. The tropical riches of these possessions pass thru Singapore on their way to Europe and America, and the manufactured goods of Europe, the United States and even Japan are stored in and distributed from Singapore.

SINGAPORE ISLAND

The naval base is on a small island. This island, lying off the end of the Malay Peninsula, is separted therefrom by a strait only about one mile wide. To the south of the island is the Singapore Strait, the chief channel of commerce from the Western Pacific to the Indian Ocean. To the northeast lies a southerly extension of the Malay Peninsula. Singapore Island, which lies almost exactly on

the Equator, is 27 miles long and 14 miles wide. When Sir Stamford Raffles, as agent for the East India Company, acquired it in 1819 from the Sultan of Jehore (who lived on the Asiatic mainland just across the narrow channel to the north), it was a solid jungle mass except for one small fishing village. When Britain chose to build a great naval base there, the site consisted of jungle and swampland. An elaborate program of clearing and draining had to precede actual construction. The British tried to make Singapore "the Gibraltar of the East," England's Maginot Line in the Far East. Altho Admiral Jellicoe wanted a British naval base "capable of looking Japan in the face" at Sydney rather than at Singapore, both the Admiralty and the British politicians wanted to "secure" Burma and India as well as the Antipodes. The exposed Dominions of Australia and New Zealand were the first to call Britain's attention to the fact that they were practically defenseless. It was well known that Britain had never had a Pacific fleet. A handful of cruisers was all the British admiralty could boast east of Suez before World War II. The Pacific area had been considered by Britain the safest of all the seven seas. Japan's rapid advance after World War I and unusual expansion of the Japanese Navy changed this picture, and forced the construction of Singapore.

The entire history of the building of the base is, however, pitiable; even more so than the parallel story of American defense efforts in the Philippines. Construction was pushed by fits and starts. After the naval limitation treaties Britain could spare no capital ships to base there; and even if she had, as late as 1940 Singapore had insufficient facilities for the servicing and repairing of capital ships.[3] When in 1940 the British Admiralty began urging the United States Navy to take over the defense of Singapore, the United States of America resolutely declined to have anything to do with it. Only token detachments of the R.A.F. were stationed there in 1941, so that when the Prince of Wales and the Repulse, naked of air cover, tried to break up the Japanese invasion of the Malay Peninsula they were sunk by torpedo bombers.

It is true that the fortress was ringed with machine-gun emplacements, and the 18-inch guns concealed on islands in the surrounding waters covered the approaches over a 25-mile circle. But the military engineers who designed the Singapore base never

[3] Russell Grenfell, *Main Fleet to Singapore* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952).

seriously contemplated the contingency of having to face the main attack thru the Malay Peninsula. Contrary to expectation, the jungle did not seriously impede this advance. The British had counted on the friendly French forces in Indo-China and on the natural obstacles to overland invasion thru Malaya. Consequently Singapore's principal defenses all faced southward toward the sea.[4]

SINGAPORE LOST AND REGAINED

Once the Japanese had won command of the air and the adjacent seas, Singapore was doomed. Its chief defenses were built against attack by sea. Assault came by air and land when the Japanese moved down the Malay Peninsula from neighboring Siam. Resistance then was futile. The big guns of the sea approaches had little chance to prove their worth. About 70,000 British troops were captured along with the naval base when Singapore fell on February 15, 1942. The belated and ineffective reinforcement of Singapore made inevitable the loss of Java and the whole Malay barrier.

With the ousting of the Japanese, Singapore resumed its place as a trade center of the Orient. After three and one-half years of Japanese occupation, the "City of the Lion" was again in British hands. As the headquarters of the British Land Forces and Royal Air Force in the Far East (which garrison Malaya, Singapore and Hong Kong), and also the Naval Headquarters of the Far East Station, Singapore has regained its former importance. It remains the headquarters of the British forces which maintain British authority in face of penetration by Chinese Communists, who, based in areas on the Malay-Thailand frontier, disguise their objectives as Malayan, Nationalist and anti-imperialist.

[4] George Weller, *Singapore is Silent* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1943) is a heartbreaking, personal, searing story of the fall of Singapore.

Emil Hahn, *Raffles of Singapore* (New York: Doubleday and Company, 1946) is an attractive story of Empire Builders.

DOUGLAS C. RIDGLEY

1868-1952

Dr. Douglas C. Ridgley, who was President of the National Council of Geography Teachers in 1931, and who, previous to that time, was its treasurer for ten years, passed away on October 10, 1952.

Dr. Ridgley graduated from Indiana State Teachers College at Terre Haute in 1891 and received an A.B. degree from Indiana University in 1893. He was awarded a Master of Science degree from the University of Chicago in 1923 and a Doctor of Philosophy degree at Clark University in 1926.

For over 50 years, Dr. Ridgley was a leading figure in geographic education in the United States. His service as a teacher ranges from the public school to the university level. Even before he graduated from Terre Haute, Dr. Ridgley was teaching in the public schools of Indiana, and such service to his native state continued at intervals until 1895 when he moved to Chicago. There he engaged in similar work, first as a teacher in the West Division High School for five years and then as principal of the Victor F. Lawson Grammar School for three years.

Dr. Ridgley's next move took him down state to the Illinois State Normal University at Normal, where he served as Professor of Geography and Head of the Geography Department from 1903 to 1922. In the latter year, he came to Clark University as a Special Lecturer in Geography and in 1924 he was appointed Associate Professor of Geography in Education. Three years later he became a full Professor and served Clark in that capacity until his retirement, as Professor Emeritus, in 1934.

Throughout his active teaching career and even after his retirement, Dr. Ridgley's special assignments in the interest of geography were many. In the first World War, he served in France as Director of Geography, Army Educational Corps, December 1918—July 1919; in World War II, he was a Lecturer in Geography for the United States Army Air Force. He was also Professor of Geography on the First College Cruise Around the World in 1926-1927.

At Clark, Dr. Ridgley took on many special duties, including the directorships of the Home Study Department and the Summer School. In this latter capacity, he pioneered in organizing geographical excursions under trained leaders, a feature which at the time attracted much attention in the educational world.

In addition to his teaching duties, Dr. Ridgley always found time for editing and writing—at one time he was an Associate Editor of the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY, and he was the author or coauthor of many textbooks, workbooks and geographic pamphlets.

We who knew Dr. Ridgley best recognize him—as did the National Council in 1935—for his distinguished service to Geography—a service great not only because of his foregoing material accomplishments but also because of his remarkable human qualities. These latter qualities endeared him to his students and no matter how busy he was, Dr. Ridgley always found time to help them with their problems. Thus today there are scores of men and women well established in the field of Geography who stand as a living monument to this great teacher, counsellor and friend.

GUY H. BURNHAM

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL AT WORK

According to the constitution there are in the National Council of Geography Teachers, several classes of membership, namely, annual members; contributing members; honorary members; and Fellows. Annual members pay a yearly fee of four dollars. A person becomes a contributing member by the payment of six dollars beyond their annual membership dues. Members attain the status of a Fellow after having been a member in good standing for five consecutive years. Under certain conditions the Executive Board may select persons as honorary members.

The names of contributing members for the years 1951-1952 appears below. If any member has been omitted from this list the secretary will be happy to hear from them.

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FELLOWS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL

Those attaining the status of a Fellow since the last published list appeared in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY are: January 1952—Mary Beale, Dr. Clifford MacFadden, Anna P. James; February—Eugenia M. Baxter, Ruby M. Harris, Elizabeth McGill, E. E. Welch; March—Alice M. Knauss, Jessie Rhines, Dr. Gordon Schilz, Dr. Esther S. Anderson; April—E. C. Chamberlin, Mrs Paul Craig, Gertie L. Hanson, Wm. N. Harris, S. Earl Brown, Jr.; May—Francis W. Altenburg, John M. Ball, Dr. Luella N. Dambaugh, Gladys M. Gilbert, Mary Hileman, Melvin E. Kazeck, Robert D. Loring, Helen Mixter, Grace Kaufman, John D. Phillips; September—E. F. Ahlman, Mrs. Geneva Banks Ball, Fred E. Dohrs, Glenn I. Flora, George F. Howe, O. Orland Maxfield, Sidney Nanes, Lauren C. Post, Carl L. Ross, John H. Schrock; October—Anna J. Johnson, Natalie Notz.

If any member in the National Council of Geography Teachers has not received recognition for his five years of continuous membership, please write to the Secretary of the National Council of Geography Teachers, State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota.

INA CULLOM ROBERTSON, *Secretary*
National Council of Geography Teachers
State Teachers College
Valley City, North Dakota

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

Stephen B. Jones and Marion Fisher Murphy. **Geography and World Affairs.** Rand-McNally & Company, Chicago, 1951. 398 pages. $3.64.

Geography and World Affairs is a political geography for secondary schools. It is the fourth in a series of geographies published by Rand-McNally.

This text should be welcomed by teachers of the social studies who hope to teach their students to be intelligently thoughtful in world affairs. Many Americans do not seem to be aware that political events take place on the earth and are influenced by earth conditions. The authors emphasize that "world affairs always take place *somewhere.*"

The publishers assume that the students will have had some study of both geography and history. The organization of the material in this text does not follow the usual pattern and, therefore, is fresh and provocative to more mature thinking.

There are seven chapters. Following an opening chapter (42 pp.) explaining the factors in our political world, the Soviet Union and its central position in Eurasia are ably presented (30 pp.). Politically and geographically this is an appropriate approach. The next two chapters study 1. *the western coastlands:* Europe, outside the Soviet Union; southwestern Asia and Africa (86 pp.); and 2. *the eastern coastlands:* from India to Japan (76 pp.). The fifth chapter is concerned with *The Oceans in World Affairs* (32 pp.) and is followed by a chapter on *The American Nations* (74 pp.). The final chapter, entitled *It's All One World,* discusses good politics in world affairs (14 pp.). The sequence of topics within each chapter is clearly indicated. At the opening of each chapter the area to be presented in the chapter is highlighted on a world map.

While the language of the text is intended to be within the reading ability of any high school student, the ideas presented can be expanded to challenge the maturity of the thinking of any student. The "Workshop" at the end of each chapter gives attention to vocabulary building as well as instructions and suggestions for study.

The many photographs, cartoons and maps within each chapter are chosen to clarify the contents. Often the captions are questions which lead the student to give substance to an idea. Following the seven chapters there are twelve pages of index and pronouncing vocabulary, statistics and suggestions for supplementary reading. Lastly, there is a 32-page atlas in color with seven double-page world maps of various world patterns and physical-political maps of continents and large areas within continents.

ADAH FLEMINGTON

New Trier Township High School
Winnetka, Illinois

Renner, Durand, White and Gibson. **World Economic Geography.** Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1951. 744 pages with photographs, maps, graphs and index. $6.00.

The book entitled *World Economic Geography* is as the authors state, " a new type of Geography." It is a storehouse of information. Little has been omitted. It is one of the best of the more recent texts, written for Economic Geography courses in college.

But there are parts on which comments may be made. The following are outstanding: I. The first chapter, where the relationship between Economics and Economic Geography is explained. 2. The chapter on principles governing production from the land. 3. The questions and discussion topics at the end of each chapter. These may be used or not by the instructor. Not too lengthy and well-stated, they help the student check on his understanding of the chapter. 4. Organization of products of farm, range and forests under climatic regions leads the students to see the importance of climate to many industries. 5. Part three is exceptionally well illustrated by photos, graphs and maps. 6. The same may be claimed for most of part four.

Illustrative material in a text is to clarify for the student understanding which he does not get from the printed page.

The following parts could be changed: 1. With such an all-inclusive text not all the photographs measure up. Many are too small and not too clear. Ineffective, they fail to add much to the topics, as compared to the space they occupy. 2. To a less degree the same might be said of the world maps from the United States Department of Agriculture. 3. In Part Two, Chapter 14, "The World's Forests" could be organized to show climate first and countries second. 4. Also, in Part Two, Chapters 15 and 16 could be reorganized and put in one chapter. "Man and His Food Supply That Comes From the Land" could be omitted. 5. The use of more graphs is desirable.

This book will provide a useful text for students of Economic Geography at the undergraduate level.

ROSE ZELLER

Eastern Illinois State College

Frank Illingworth. **North of the Circle.** The Philosophical Library, New York, 1952. 254 pages. $4.75.

Mr. Illingworth has compiled an interesting group of northern stories, some of which are based on his own visits to Spitzbergen and Northern Scandinavia. Most of the accounts of northern adventures and experiences have been taken from other books and periodicals. Readers who are familiar with such northern periodicals as "The Beaver," "Arctic" and "The Polar Record" will recognize many of the stories. The reader who has read very little northern literature will find the book entertaining, for Illingworth writes well and has arranged the stories under topical headings such as: pack ice, women in the arctic, farming, seals, eskimo, etc.

If one is looking for some geographical knowledge, however, interspersed with the stories, one will not find it there. In fact, in his introduction Illingworth indicates that his geography is rather hazy. He never does decide what the arctic is. In one place he correctly uses the northern tree-line, but then spoils his definition by saying that the tree-line coincides with the 53rd Isotherm. (He does not say to what months his "isotherm" is supposed to refer, but supposedly he was referring to the *50* degree July isotherm.) Elsewhere he states that we "should differentiate between the arctic and polar regions," since "the former embraces the latter," and the arctic may be described as "the habitable areas of the north." All of which is very vague. In like fashion the title of the book is misleading. Altho he says (correctly) that we should *not* use the

Arctic Circle to define the arctic region, in many places in the book the text suggests that this *is* his definition. It is therefore difficult to justify most of the stories about North America which deal with, for example, the Matanuska Valley, Fairbanks, Dawson and the Klondike gold rush, Yellowknife and Churchill—all of which are *south* of the Arctic Circle. He even includes northern British Columbia in one place, which is difficult for this reviewer to swallow!

If one ignores Illingworth's first chapter on "Fact and Fiction" in which he never is able to differentiate the two, there still remains a very good collection of "northern" stories which make easy and light reading before a cozy fireplace.

J. LEWIS ROBINSON

University of British Columbia

Herbert Townsend. **Our Wonderful Earth.** Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston, 1951. viii and 148 pages, illustrations and index. $2.50.

This geography reader, with its introduction to global understandings in simplified form, will stimulate the child on the elementary level to find more about the earth and the ways in which it is used. A good supplementary book for Grade IV, it is also an acceptable text for older pupils whose reading ability is limited. The style and vocabulary are within the limits of such children.

When a text is readable, geographic skills and understandings may be strengthened; long, complex sentences are no aid to the child with reading deficiencies. The author demonstrates his understanding of this by aiding the teacher and pupil in offering text with simple sentence structure, relatively short eye span, yet with pages printed in the appealing manner of his basal reading series.

Understandings of people, places and production have been fixed thru simple repetition of basic fact. Social groups have been well done with delightful illustrations to appeal to the elementary level.

The teacher will note the orderly sequence of the scope of the text. For the child, the relation of geographic concepts is orderly. In beginning with the vastness of the universe, the author has used the conditioning of the modern child to the immensity of space thru television, radio and comic books with pseudo-scientific trips via rocket ships.

Maps used are readable and teachable; particularly note-worthy is the way in which the author differentiates the seven continents thru eye-catching colors. The accompanying text aids the child in learning to interpret areas thru observation and comparison.

With the present trend in education to satisfy the needs of the whole child, the author proved his knowledge of these needs by making use of the child's love of whimsy. The humorous drawings used in contrasting hot and cold places are whimsical enough for anyone! Source materials may be secured thru the child's natural curiosity and his desire to amass collections: maps, pictures, souvenirs, etc. The understanding teacher will channel his curiosity into thinking of the similarities and differences of persons and places.

The residue of geographical knowledge after a reading of this text should be 1. the nature of our encompassing earth, 2. a minimum understanding of the solar system, 3. human, animal and plant life of the earth, 4. a sympathetic understanding of human relations. With this residue, the child is well on his way to a better, richer citizenship.

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Joseph Wood Krutch. **The Desert Year.** William Sloane Associates, Inc., New York, 1952. 270 pages, illustrations. $3.75.

The Desert Year is valuable in giving a "feeling" for the landscape of the American southwest, especially the Lower Sonoran Desert. This is achieved by emphasizing a much-neglected phase of regional study, that of the emotional response of individuals to the landscape. Krutch does not restrict this interpretation to his own emotions but supplements by contemplating how the desert seems to others having a different background—and with his changed feelings after having lived in the desert for a year.

The skills of Mr. Krutch in observing and recording are developed far beyond the average. These rare qualities are combined with a pleasing literary style to give readers both information and pleasure. For the geography teacher, this makes the book especially valuable supplementary reading, being both stimulating and informative.

Some of the chapters of special interest to the young geographer are entitled "What It Looks Like," "How to See It," "How Some Others Live There," "Desert Rain," and "What the Desert Is Good For." These deal wth a number of geographic problems as well as the material indicated by their titles. His approach to the desert boundary is a practical exercise in regional delimitation, posing and elaborating the question, "But how, when the important thing is a configuration, can one decide when the elements added one to one have established it?"

Description is supplemented with a reasoned explanation. Not content with describing how vegetation differs on the desert flat, the bajada and the mountain slope, Mr. Krutch brings soil, type of precipitation, changes of climate with elevation and drainage conditions into his discussion.

Some may object to the philosophizing scattered thruout; to others it will give added interest. A practical result is in placing the book beyond the ability of some who could profit from it otherwise. The thoughts of a man striving to arrive at a philosophy by which to direct his life, on the other hand, may be of great value to high school and college students who frequently face a similar problem.

Indiana University JAMES TAYLOR

N. A. Bouwes Dekker. **Tanah Air Kita—A Book on the Country and People of Indonesia.** W. Van Hoeve, Ltd., The Hague, Netherlands, 2nd edition, 1950. 316 pages, 8 maps, more than 340 pictures, 8¾ × 12¼ inches.

With a wealth of pictures and a minimum of textual reading, the author has compiled into one volume a highly successful representation of the mosaic of lands and peoples that live in Indonesia. Many of the more than 340 pictures are a half page to full page in size with a few of them on double page spread. In the first section, fifteen gorgeously colored pictures give an over-all view of Indonesia.

Tanah Air Kita means "Our Land and Water." The author characterizes each of the parts of Indonesia in the chapter headings. For example, Borneo is sub-titled Whispering Shores, Sumatra is The Young Giant.

The volume is organized into eight sections. A map which has the place names mentioned in the text serves as the preface to each section. Shading shows the relief pattern and rivers. Only place names appear so the simple maps are easy to read. Following the map are two pages of text giving the highlights of that unit of Indonesia. The pictures have three or four lines of explanation and information in the caption.

Since this is largely a picture book, the pictures have been selected to include most all phases of living and working in Indonesia. Natural and cultural features are conspicuous in most of the views, thus giving high geographic quality to the pictures. Plants and animals, relief and land uses, customs and cultures, young and aged people, industry

and transportation and many other aspects of the lands and water are included in the superb photographs.

This volume would be of interest to pupils in any grade as well as college students. Pictures speak such a universal language that there is much to learn from them regardless of the age of the readers.

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F. W. Morgan. **Ports and Harbours.** Hutchinson House, London, 1952. 176 pages, 12 maps. **$2.25.**

As focal areas, ports and harbors have long been among the most popular subjects for research and writing by economic geographers. The present book is a useful general treatment of some of the more important aspects of the geography of seaports, suitable for use as supplementary reading in the elementary course. It is concerned with the physical characterististics of harbors and their classification, describes briefly the major types of port facilities and their locational inter-relationships within port areas, develops a simple functional classification of ports and describes briefly each major type, discusses some of the more important characteristics of hinterlands and their delimitation, briefly points out some of the significant relationships of ports as centers of industry and population and concludes with a brief world history of ports. The volume contains a brief but well-selected bibliography of port literature.

This book is an excellent general survey of port geography. It suffers, however, from a tendency toward over-simplification and over-generalization and from a nearly complete omission of problems of port administration and operation insofar as they affect development.

Many of the examples of various types of ports and facilities would be greatly aided by more adequate illustrations. The book contains no photographs, and the layman may have difficulty in visualizing some of the conditions and facilities which are described. Furthermore, the maps are too few and are crude and inadequate. There are a few errors of fact, as, for example, the statement that the free port is not found in the United States.

The numerous examples which are cited thruout the book are not discussed sufficiently to aid comprehension by persons not already familiar with some aspects of ports; yet the book is too elementary to be very useful to persons having such familiarity. This is perhaps the result of excessive brevity.

In spite of its deficiencies, the book represents a contribution to geographic and port literature. Its shortcomings, however, point up the need for a modern treatment of port geography in somewhat greater detail, comparable to MacElwee's *Port Development,* written a generation ago, which, because of lack of a more modern comprehensive book, remains as the standard work on that subject.

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